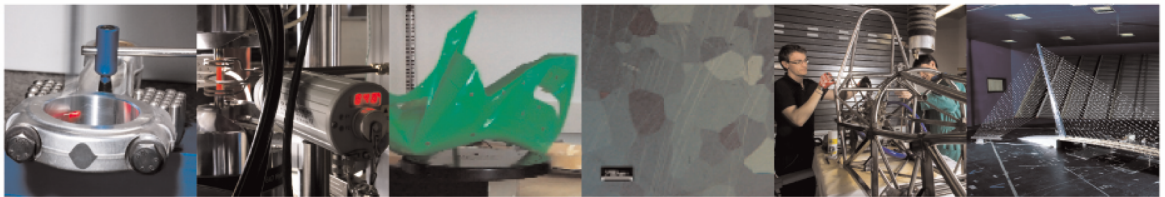




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Mechanical and microstructural characterization of WC-Co consolidated by binder jetting additive manufacturing

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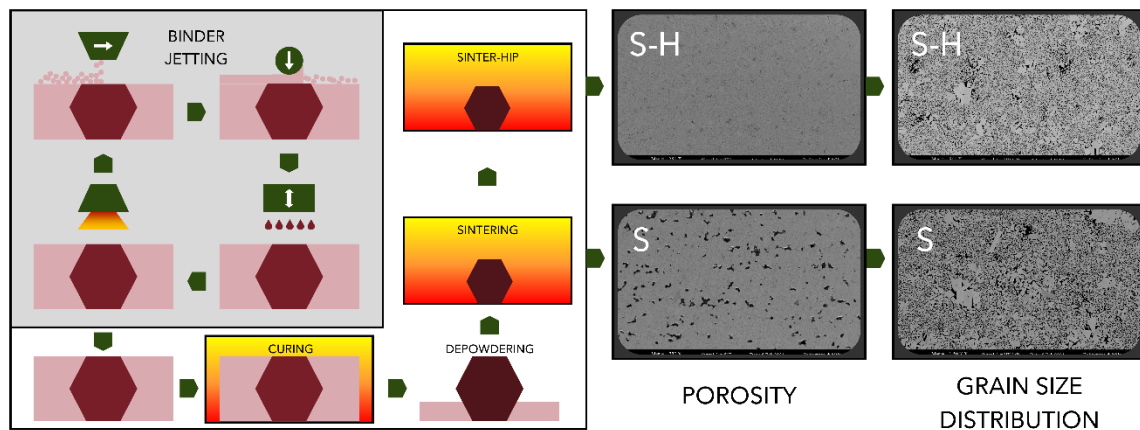
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Abstract

A study was carried out to investigate the influence of the initial powder features on the microstructure, the phase composition, and on the mechanical properties of WC-12%Co samples produced by binder jetting and densified by sintering in vacuum at 1400°C and by sinter-HIPing. The initial powder consisted of a mixture of fine-grained and coarse-grained WC-based particles, and W₂C-based ones. The density of the printed samples was 97.4% and 99.3% after sintering and sinter-HIPing, respectively. Layer-oriented porosity was observed only in sintered samples. The microstructure of the samples consisted of a mixture of fine and coarse WC grains, which can be the result of the coalescence of grains from anomalous coarse grains in the powder particles. Vickers hardness and transverse rupture strength of sinter-HIPed samples are 1205 HV and 2257 MPa, respectively, which is coherent with the microstructural analysis and close to coarse-grained commercial products.

Graphical Abstract



Keywords: cemented carbides, binder jetting; additive manufacturing; WC-Co; microstructure.

1. Introduction

Cemented carbides are a group of composite materials which consist of at least 2 phases – a hard transition metal carbide and a ductile metallic binder phase. They offer superior hardness, remarkable toughness, and wear resistance; hence they are widely used in application where all these properties are required, such as wear-resistant parts and milling tools. The most used cemented

33 carbide is WC-Co, followed by other systems as WC-TiCTaC-Co and WC-Ni. In addition to the effects
34 of the chemical composition, the main properties of the composite such as hardness, strength,
35 toughness, and wear resistance, depend also on the carbide grain size, its distribution and the binder
36 content [1–6].

37 Traditional manufacturing methods are based on powder metallurgy principles of consolidating and
38 sintering, including advanced techniques such as hot isostatic pressing (HIP) and spark plasma
39 sintering (SPS) [7]. Besides, powder injection molding (PIM) and extrusion are also used [8–12]. In
40 recent years, the need for complex shapes by application-oriented design has pushed toward the
41 employment of additive manufacturing (AM) techniques to produce also this class of materials.
42 Several studies have been reported focusing on different methods, such as laser powder bed fusion
43 (LPBF) [13–27], laser engineered net shaping (LENS) [28,29], extrusion-based fused filament
44 fabrication (FFF) [30,31], 3D gel-printing (3DGP) [32], and powder-based binder jetting additive
45 manufacturing (BJAM) [33–36]. The main drawback of using the LPBF technique for the WC-Co
46 system is the overheating induced by the laser that causes microcracks, decarburization of WC with
47 the formation of undesirable η -phases, which are brittle complex carbides like W_3Co_3C , W_6Co_6C .
48 Among all others, the BJ appears to be the most promising AM techniques to produce near-net-shape
49 WC-based parts because the printing process of the green part with the organic binder occurs at low
50 temperature, while densification by sintering or sinter-HIPing are performed separately, at the solid
51 stage, similarly to the traditional and well-developed manufacturing technologies.

52 There are reports on the use of binder jetting additive manufacturing for the WC-Co system. Enneti
53 et al. [36–38] used pre-alloyed WC-Co powder with sintering and sinter-HIP as consolidation
54 techniques. In contrast, Cramer et al. [33,39–41] used pure WC powder to produce a green model,
55 and then they infiltrated it with a liquid Co-based mixture. From these few reports available in the
56 open literature, limited description is provided about the microstructural evolution and the
57 mechanical behaviour of WC-based materials during the printing phase and in the subsequent
58 consolidation stage.

59 In this study, we investigated the influence of the initial powder features on the microstructure, the
60 phase composition, and on the mechanical and magnetic properties of WC-Co samples produced by
61 BJ and densified either by sintering or by sinter-HIPing.

62

63 **2. Materials and Methods**

64 *2.1. Materials*

65 For this study, the powder employed was a WC-12Co (wt.%), provided by Global Tungsten & Powders
66 Corp. (US) (AM WC702). The powder size lies in the range 5–20 μm (d_{10} - d_{90}) and the apparent density
67 is about 4–8 g cm^{-3} , according to the product datasheet. The binder employed in the printing process
68 was provided by ExOne Inc. and is a commercial water-based product (code: BA-005).

69

70 *2.2. Powder Characterization*

71 The powder surface and sections of powder particles after mounting, polishing and etching were
72 visually analysed via a ZEISS SIGMA 500 field emission-scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM),
73 which also provided chemical composition measurements by energy dispersion X-ray detection

74 (EDX). SEM images were inspected and analysed by ImageJ software to determine the grain size and
75 the powder size distribution [42].

76 The morphological features of the powders were determined by a Malvern Morphology 4
77 granulometer (ASTM E2651-19). The analysis allowed to calculate the number-based relative and
78 cumulative frequency distributions and to evaluate the particles circularity, calculated as the ratio of
79 the circumscribed circle on the actual particle section perimeter.

80 The crystal structure and phase composition of the powder was studied by Smartlab II Rigaku X-ray
81 diffractometer. The measurement was performed with a Cu-K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$) at a scanning
82 rate of 1° min^{-1} , from 10° to 100° and with a step size of 0.02° .

83

84 *2.3. Printing Process and Thermal Treatments*

85 The samples were produced with an Innovent+ 3D printer by ExOne Inc. The printing parameters are
86 given in Table 1 and have been selected after preliminary parameter optimization. A small layer
87 thickness ($50 \mu\text{m}$) was chosen to assure an optimal geometrical accuracy and proper powder packing,
88 and a 60% binder saturation to allow safe handling of the green bodies and minimize the amount of
89 organic residual throughout the process [38]. This was of paramount importance given the
90 detrimental effect of excess carbon resulting from binder decomposition on the microstructure, thus
91 on the mechanical performance of the sintered components.

92

93

Table 1 BJ printing parameters.

Layer thickness	50 μm
Binder saturation	60%
Drying time	12 s
Recoat speed	300 mm/s

94

95 After the printing, the curing was performed at 180°C for 6 hours in air to eliminate the binder
96 solvents and solidify the polymeric network, as required for the safe extraction of the green bodies
97 from the unbound powder. These samples (i.e. the green bodies) were then debinded/pre-sintered at
98 500°C for 4 hours in nitrogen atmosphere and finally sintered at 1400°C under vacuum. Further
99 densification by HIP under a 35 bar pressure was performed for 20 minutes at 1400°C . IN the
100 following, we will refer to sintered samples using the letter “S”, and to sintered and HIPed ones with
101 “SH”.

102

103 *2.4. Microstructural and Mechanical Characterization*

104 The efficacy of the thermal treatments was monitored by density measurements at each step of the
105 process. Green densities were estimated by a simplified geometrical method based on the gross
106 volume and weight of samples, due to large extent of porosity. Archimede’s method was applied to S
107 and SH specimens (ASTM B311 – 17). The theoretical density of WC – 12 wt.% Co was considered to
108 be 14.29 g cm^{-3} . Linear shrinkage was calculated by measuring S and SH 3-point bending test
109 specimens with a digital caliper along the X (Roller Axis), Y (Printhead Axis) and Z (build direction).
110 The microstructure was studied by optical and scanning electron microscopy on polished transverse
111 and longitudinal sections (ASTM E3 – 11), and on samples etched by Murakami’s reagent (ASTM

112 E407 - 7), to determine the grain and pore size distributions and the presence of defects such as
113 carbon segregation and formation of η -phases. The samples were characterized also by XRD, with the
114 parameters described in the paragraph 2.3.

115 Eight SH specimens were mechanically characterized by Vickers hardness (HV) measurement with
116 an applied load of 10 kgf for 15 seconds on polished surfaces (ASTM C1327-14) and by 3-point
117 bending test on grounded samples with a constant load displacement rate of 0.5 mm min^{-1} (ISO 3327)
118 to assess the transverse rupture strength (TRS). TRS was calculated as follows in Eq. 1:

119

$$120 \text{ TRS} = 3 k F l / (2 w h^2) \quad (1)$$

121

122 where $k = 1.02$ is the chamfer correction value, F is the force applied, l is the span length, and w, h
123 are the specimen width and height, respectively.

124

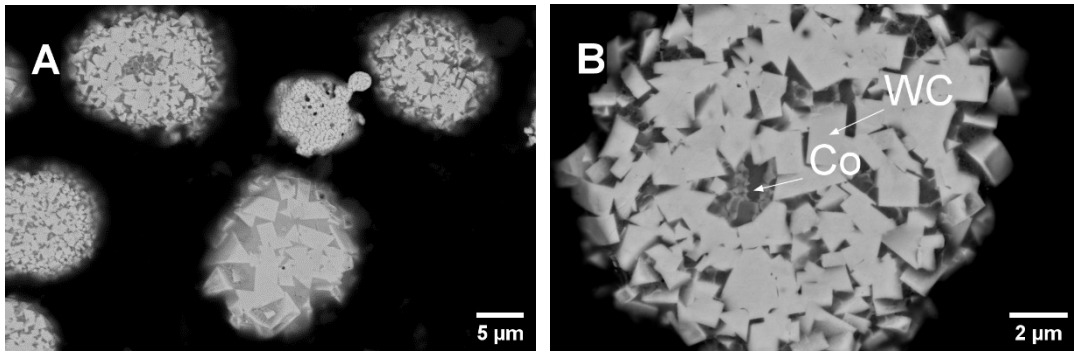
125 **3. Results and Discussion**

126 *3.1. Powder Characterization*

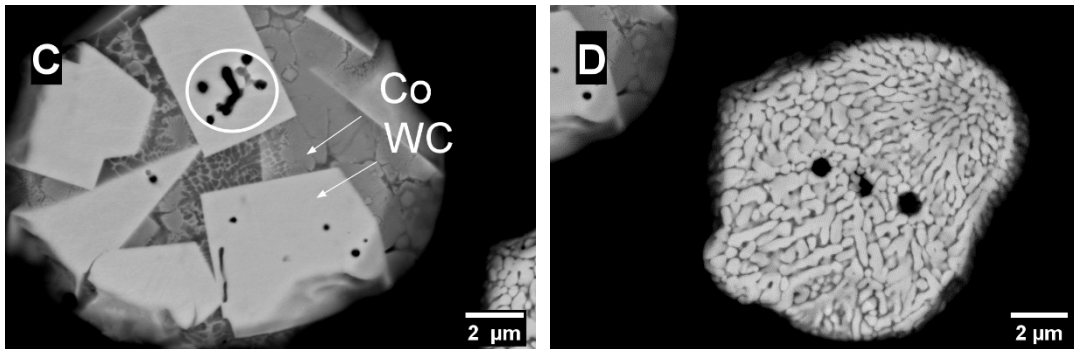
127 SEM images of the polished sections of particles revealed that the powder employed was a mixture of
128 three different particle types, as observed in Figure 1A and in Figure 2. Specifically, it was possible to
129 identify particles with a uniform distribution of fine WC grains (Figure 1B), with maximum size of
130 about $3\text{-}4 \mu\text{m}$, in a limited amount of cobalt matrix. In addition, particles with coarse WC grains size
131 up to $10 \mu\text{m}$ were detected with noticeable intragranular porosity (indicated by the circle in Figure
132 1C), which can be the result of coalescence of fine grains during the powder production process, and
133 other slightly smaller particles with finer W_2C columnar grains (Figure 1D). It is worth noticing that
134 these latter particles seem to be often affected by internal porosity which could prevent full
135 densification during post-processing, particularly during pressureless sintering, in addition to
136 represent a dangerous site for fracture nucleation. The presence of W_2C must be considered when
137 planning the post-processing, as it requires to correct the carbon balance to avoid the formation of
138 detrimental phases in the final microstructure. A solution could be a carbon-correction cycle with
139 methane during the heating ramp, as done by Enneti et al. [36]. The formation of coarse-grained
140 particles can presumably be explained by the occurrence of WC recrystallization during melting and
141 subsequent cooling of the powder in a thermal plasma spheroidization process.

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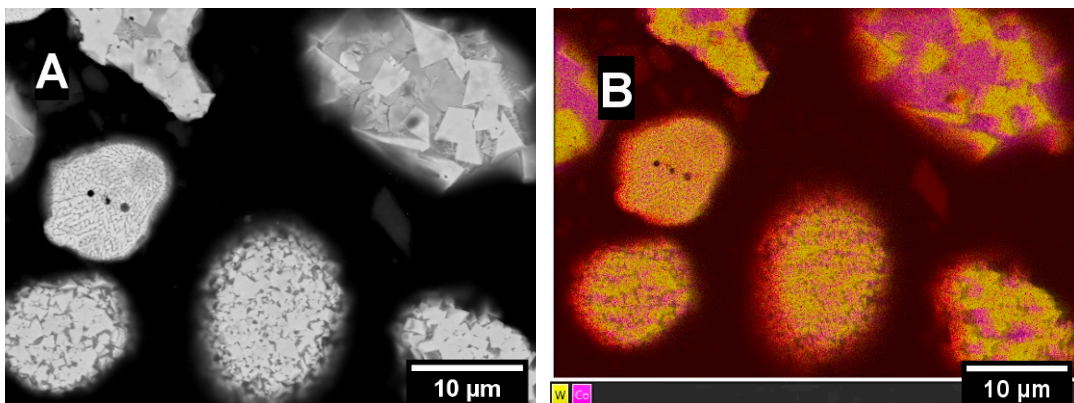


144



145 **Figure 1** SEM micrographs of the polished sections of (A) WC-Co powder, (B) a particle with fine
 146 WC grains in Co matrix, (C) a particle with coarse WC grains in Co matrix, and (D) a particle with
 147 W_2C columnar grains.
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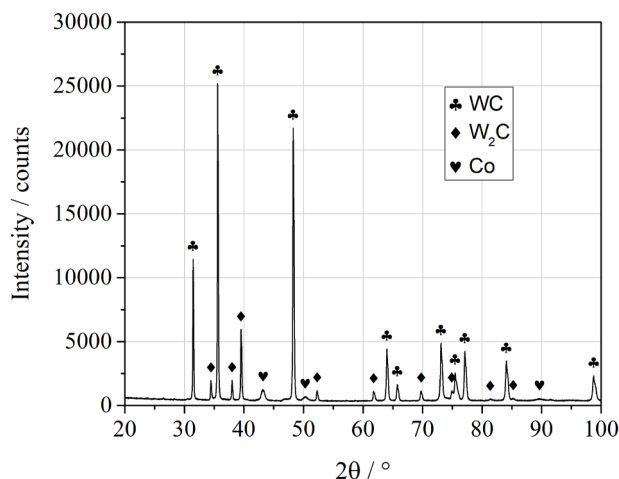
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151 **Figure 2** Elemental mapping of different particles of the WC-12Co (wt.%) powder investigated: (A)
 152 SEM micrograph; (B) Combined map; (C) Map of W; (D) Map of Co.
 153

154 The X-ray diffractometry spectrum given in Figure 3 confirms the nature of the different phases
 155 identified in the three particle types by SEM-EDX. WC is the main phase in terms of overall amount,
 156 however peaks of the W_2C can be identified, as well as those generated by the Cobalt matrix.
 157



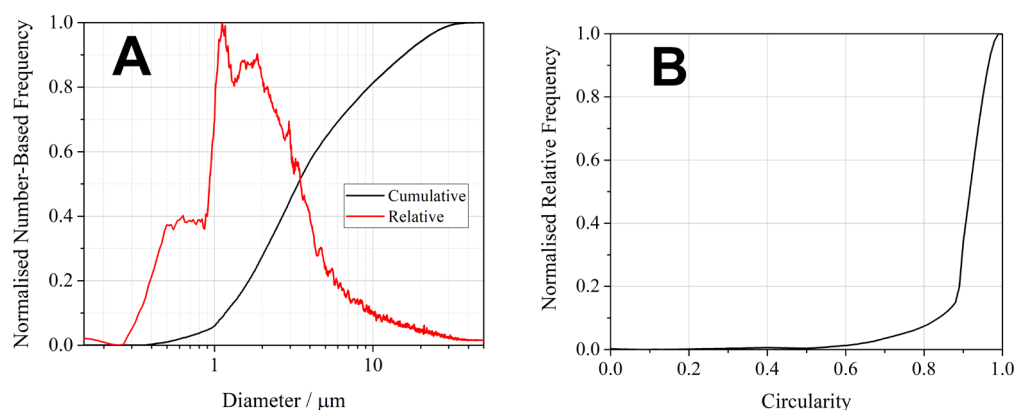
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Figure 3 XRD spectrum of the as-received WC-12Co powder.

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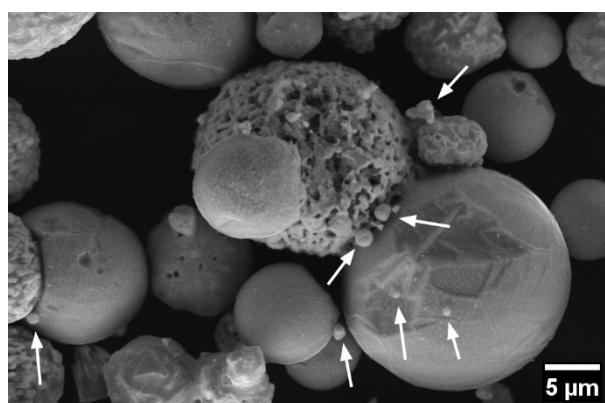
161 Granulometric measurements presented in Figure 4 apparently show the presence of a bimodal
 162 population of particles, whose size-distribution bells are partially overlapped. Indeed, the overall
 163 value of d_{50} from granulometric measurement was $3.5 \mu\text{m}$ (Figure 4A), which is significantly different
 164 from the nominal values of $15 - 30 \mu\text{m}$ given by the supplier and the average value of $16.6 \mu\text{m}$
 165 measured by ImageJ. The difference is most likely due to the presence of fine spherical particles in
 166 the supplied material resulting from evaporation and condensation of the powder particles during
 167 plasma spheroidization. These particles are detected by the granulometer, but they are difficult to be
 168 visually analysed. Some examples of the small-size fraction of particles are also highlighted in Figure
 169 5.

170 Although larger granules are fundamental to obtain a proper powder flowability and spreadability
 171 during the printing phase, the presence of smaller ones should not be neglected. Indeed, they tend to
 172 increase the packing density of the powder bed by filling the voids between larger particles and they
 173 affect the sintering process since solubility, diffusivity and grain growth are also related to the
 174 particles radius [6].
 175



176
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Figure 4 Granulometric analysis of the powder particles: (A) Cumulative and relative frequency distributions (number-based); (B) Circularity measurement curve.



180
181
182

Figure 5 SEM image of the initial powder with fine particles.

183 3.2. Microstructural Characterization

184 The printing process revealed to be highly repeatable and reliable, as demonstrated by the low
185 standard deviation of the green density obtained from measuring 15 samples (Table 2). The drastic
186 increase of the density after sintering and sinter-HIP processes is accompanied by the change of
187 geometrical dimensions, resulting in an approximate shrinkage for sintering of 21% by X-axis, 23%
188 by Y-axis, 20% by Z-axis, for sinter-HIP of 23% for X-axis, 26% for Y-axis, 23% for Z-axis.

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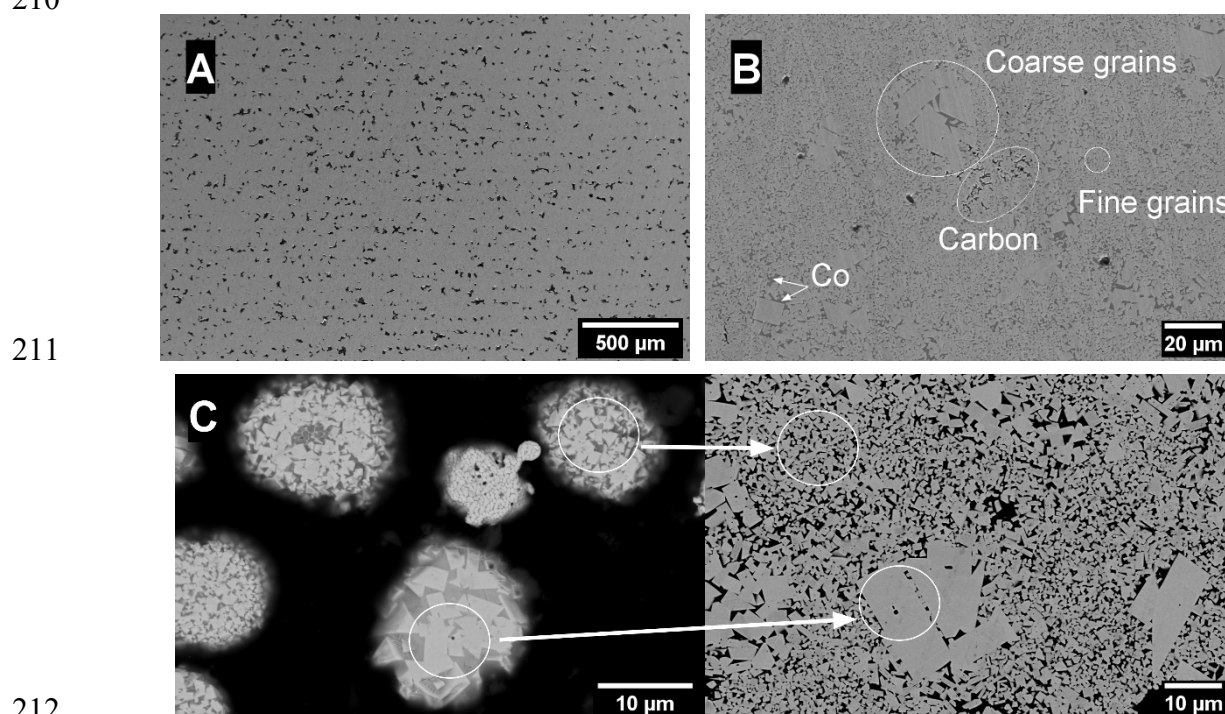
190 **Table 2** Average relative density (%) values at the green (G), sintering (S) and sinter-HIP (SH)
191 stages.

<i>Relative Density / %</i>		
<i>G</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>SH</i>
47.3 ± 0.6	97.4 ± 0.1	99.3 ± 0.3

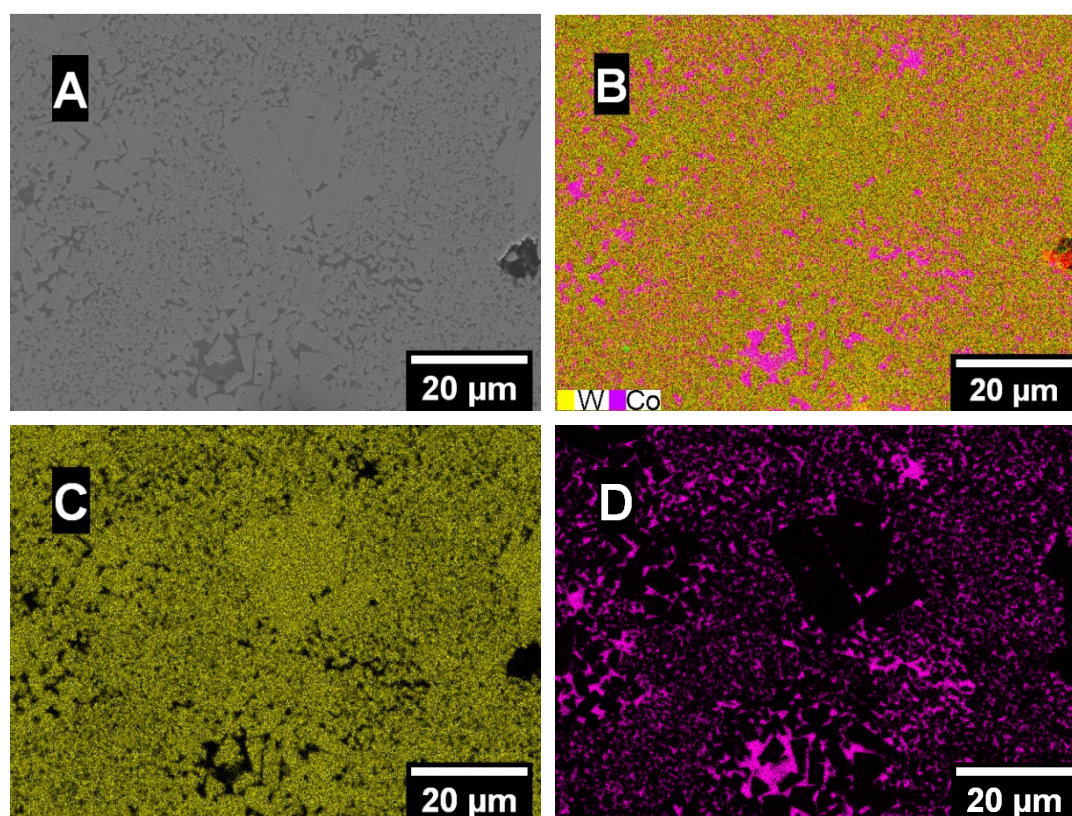
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193 The microstructure of the samples after pressureless sintering is shown in Figure 6. A noticeable
194 number of pores is observed on transversal sections along the powder layer direction. The average
195 pore size is about 18 μm, which is coherent with the average particle size. The volume occupied by the
196 densified material consists of two areas: the main one features a fine carbide-cobalt mixture, in which
197 the WC grains size is about 1-3 μm, in the remaining area coarse WC grains are observed, as

198 highlighted in Figure 6B. The coarse WC grain size can be up to more than 30 μm . In accordance with
 199 the EDX analyses, there are also carbon-enriched dendritic zones, which can be the proof of the
 200 presence of residual carbon from the organic binder that could not be totally removed during the
 201 debinding stage due to the lack of an oxidizing atmosphere during thermal treatments. The excess
 202 carbon contributed to the carburization of the W_2C grains present in the powder. However, it could
 203 also produce a graphitic phase which is detrimental to the performances of the components.
 204 The grains size and their morphology are similar to the dual distribution observed in the powder
 205 particles. The coalescence of grains and their further growth (by Ostwald ripening) may presumably
 206 start from the anomalous coarse grains in the powder particles, while the fine-grained mixture is
 207 formed after sintering of regular powder particles and it experienced a slower increase in size (Figure
 208 6C). Inside the coarse-grained zones are also detected regions enriched with cobalt, allocated along
 209 the boundaries of WC grains (Figure 7).
 210



212
 213 **Figure 6** SEM images of WC-12Co sintered sample in secondary electrons mode: (A) transverse
 214 section of the sample; (B) microstructural details (x1500); (C) the conjectured evolution of
 215 microstructure from the powder to the bulk sample.
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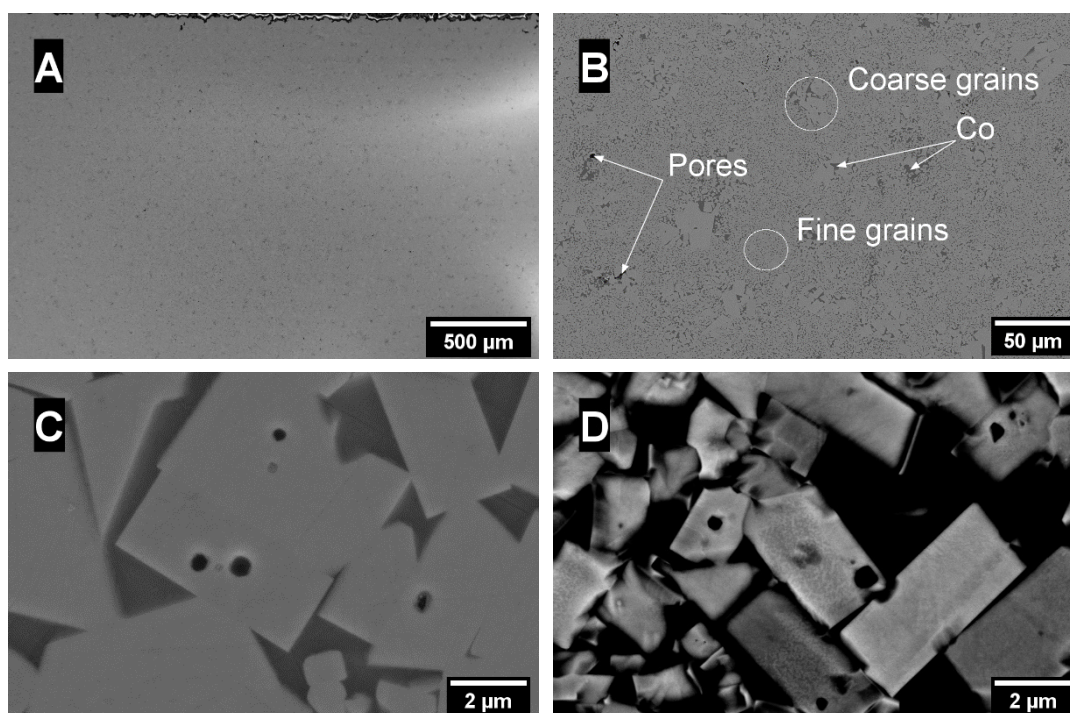
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Figure 7 Elemental mapping of WC-12Co sample after sintering (A) SEM image; (B) Combined map; (C) Map of W; (D) Map of Co.

The microstructure of the samples after sinter-HIP is shown in Figure 8. The transverse section appears to be much less porous in comparison to the sintered sample, coherently with the increase of relative density measured (Table 2). The average pore size is about 1.5 μm , thus it reduced to a tenth of that found in the sintered samples. At higher magnification (Figure 8B), also in this case a distinction between the two zones of WC-Co mixtures can be noticed: the sinter-HIP treatment was able to densify the samples by closing the internal porosity, but it did not produce significant changes in the carbides. The coarser grains size approaches about 40 μm , while the carbides in fine-grained mixture are in the 1-3 μm size range. The overall WC grain size distribution is summarized in Figure 9, resulting in an average value of 8 μm . From the distribution plot, the long right tail of the curve due to the above coarse grains should be noted. Besides the amount and size of pores, the microstructure appears to be similar to the vacuum sintered sample. There is a noticeable amount of spherical-shaped submicron pores inside of coarse WC grains (Figure 8 C,D), which may either be transferred from anomalous powder particles.

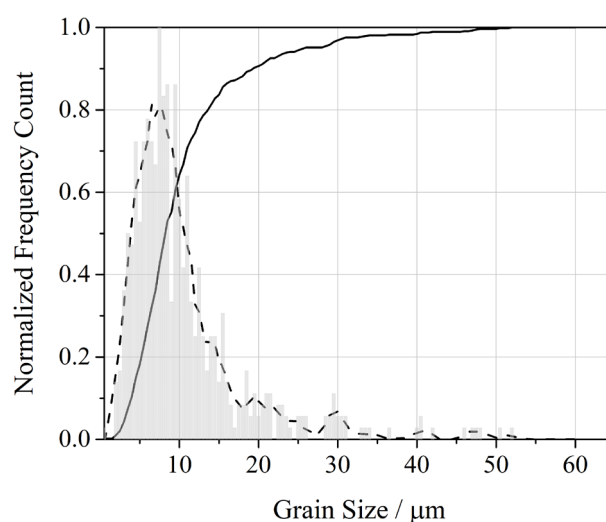


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237

238 **Figure 8** SEM images of sample after sinter-HIP: (A) transverse section of the sample; (B)
 239 microstructural details, (C) and (D) Coarse WC grains with internal porosity polished and etched,
 240 respectively.

241



242

243 **Figure 9** Cumulative and relative frequency curves of the WC grain size distribution of the sample
 244 after sinter-HIP

245

246 The XRD patterns of the sintered and sinter-HIPed samples given in Figure 10 show that the W_2C
 247 diffraction pattern is not detected anymore (compare with Figure 3) in both cases, suggesting that
 248 this phase was successfully carburized throughout the process likely thanks to the excess carbon
 249 introduced by the organic binder. Both samples also display very weak signals coming from the
 250 limited amount of graphitic phase, that can be spotted in specific locations of the microstructure.

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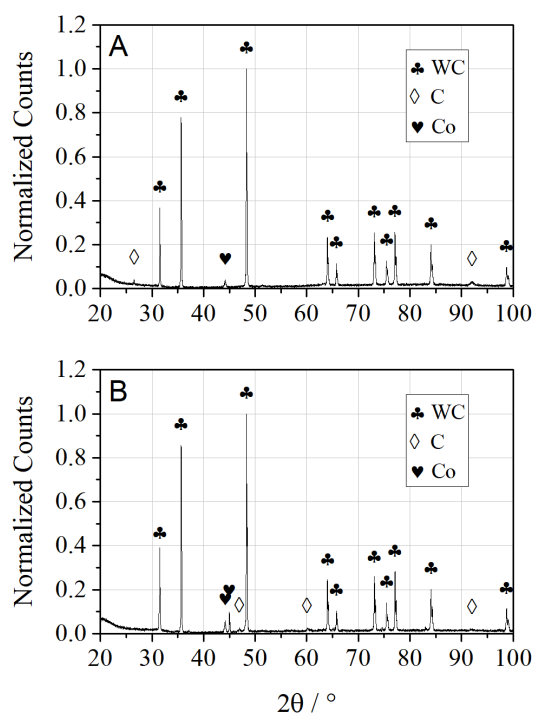


Figure 10 XRD spectra of the samples after sintering (A) and sinter-HIP (B).

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254

255 3.3. Mechanical Characterization

256 To evaluate the achievable mechanical performance, 3-point bending test was performed on the SH

257 sample that showed the best density among the conditions here investigated. TRS and hardness of

258 the samples after sinter-HIPing (Table 3) lies within the typical range for cemented carbides and

259 approximates the performance of traditionally manufactured WC-Co cemented carbide with coarse

260 (2.5-6 μm) WC grain size (Figure 11) [43,44], which well correlates with the results of our

261 microstructure analysis. The presence of large grains is crucial in determining the overall

262 performance of the printed components, even though most of the material features a finer

263 microstructure. The absence of relevant porosity is equally important as it would otherwise

264 compromise the mechanical performance and act as a preferential site for crack nucleation [45].

265 The hardness value measured is comparable with the results obtained by BJ of pre-alloyed powders

266 with the same amount of cobalt [36] and superior to binder jetted-WC infiltrated components [33]

267 and 3D gel-printed samples [32], which both featured a larger amount of Co.

268

269 **Table 3** Results of Vickers hardness and 3-point bending test measurements of SH samples.

Vickers Hardness

Transverse rupture strength

 HV₁₀

 MPa

1205 ± 12

2257 ± 28

270

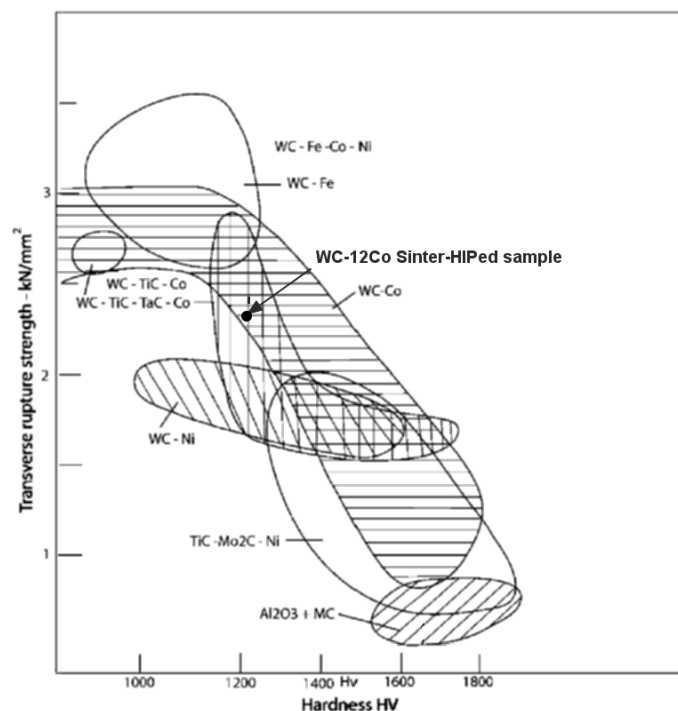


Figure 11 Relationship between the TRS and hardness of WC-based materials. Marked point corresponds to SH sample [44].

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274

275 4. Conclusions

276 A study was carried out to analyse the microstructure and the properties of WC-12Co (wt.%) powder
 277 and bulk samples produced by binder jetting additive manufacturing, with subsequent sintering and
 278 sinter-HIP treatments.

279 According to the FE-SEM analysis, elemental mapping, and X-ray diffractometry, there are three
 280 main types of particles in the powder mixture: particles with fine and uniformly distributed WC
 281 grains; particles with coarse WC grains (up to 10 μm) and a noticeable amount of inner porosity; and
 282 W_2C -based spherical particles. The presence of coarse-grained and W_2C -based particles can
 283 presumably be explained by the overheating during the spheroidization process, leading to
 284 recrystallization and decarburization. The excessive heat input is also indirectly indicated by the
 285 presence of submicron spherical particles, typical for plasma spheroidization, which are the result of
 286 an evaporation-condensation process.

287 After sintering and sinter-HIP, the obtained density was 97.4% and 99.3%, respectively. The
 288 microstructure consisted of two areas – the fine-grained and the coarse-grained. The coalescence of
 289 grains and their further growth may presumably start from the anomalous coarse grains observed in
 290 the powder particles, while the fine-grained mixture is formed after sintering of regular powder
 291 particles, and it experiences a slower growth. There was evidence of the presence of excessive carbon
 292 after pressureless sintering, that was likely the result of incomplete organic binder burnout. There
 293 were no signs of W_2C phase, suggesting that a carburization process occurred. The sinter-HIP
 294 treatment was able to more effectively densify the samples by closing most of the internal porosity.
 295 However, there was a noticeable amount of spherical-shaped submicron pores inside of coarse WC
 296 grains, which may either have been transferred from anomalous powder particles or has occurred as
 297 the result of the applied pressure and closure of pores between the WC grains during sinter-HIP.

298 Transverse rupture strength and hardness of the samples after sinter-HIP lies in the typical range for
 299 cemented carbides and approximates the traditionally manufactured WC-Co cemented carbide with
 300 coarse (2.5-6 μm) and extra coarse ($>6 \mu\text{m}$) WC grain size, which well correlates with the results of
 301 microstructure analysis. This confirms the suitability of binder jetting 3D printing for the production
 302 of commercial-grade components, although a particular focus on initial powder and microstructural
 303 evolution is needed to obtain excellent performances.

304

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 312 and analysis of the sintered and sinter-HIP samples at HI.Lab.

313

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317

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